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AIDS
TO THE CHEMISTRY
AND TESTS
OF
THE PHARMACOPEIA

JAMES DAVISON

FARRIS & CO.



the 1990s, the number of people in the UK who are employed in the public sector has increased by 1.5 million, from 2.5 million in 1980 to 4 million in 1995. The public sector has become a major employer in the UK, and its growth has been a major factor in the overall growth of the economy.

The public sector has also become a major employer of women. In 1980, women made up 40% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 50%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of women in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

The public sector has also become a major employer of people with disabilities. In 1980, people with disabilities made up 10% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 20%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people with disabilities in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

The public sector has also become a major employer of people from ethnic minorities. In 1980, people from ethnic minorities made up 5% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 15%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from ethnic minorities in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

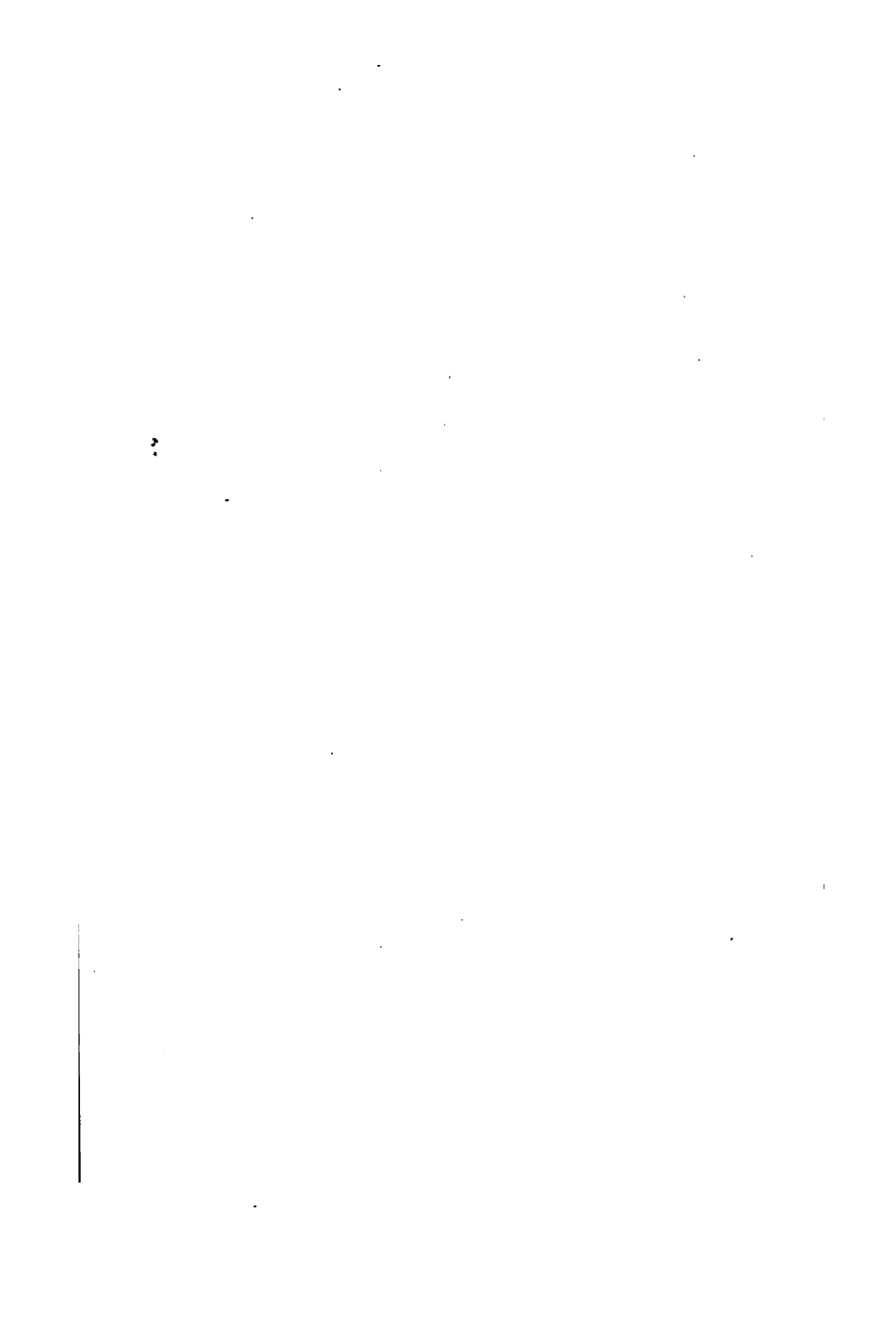
The public sector has also become a major employer of people from the lower social classes. In 1980, people from the lower social classes made up 30% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 40%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from the lower social classes in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

The public sector has also become a major employer of people from the lower income groups. In 1980, people from the lower income groups made up 20% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 30%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from the lower income groups in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

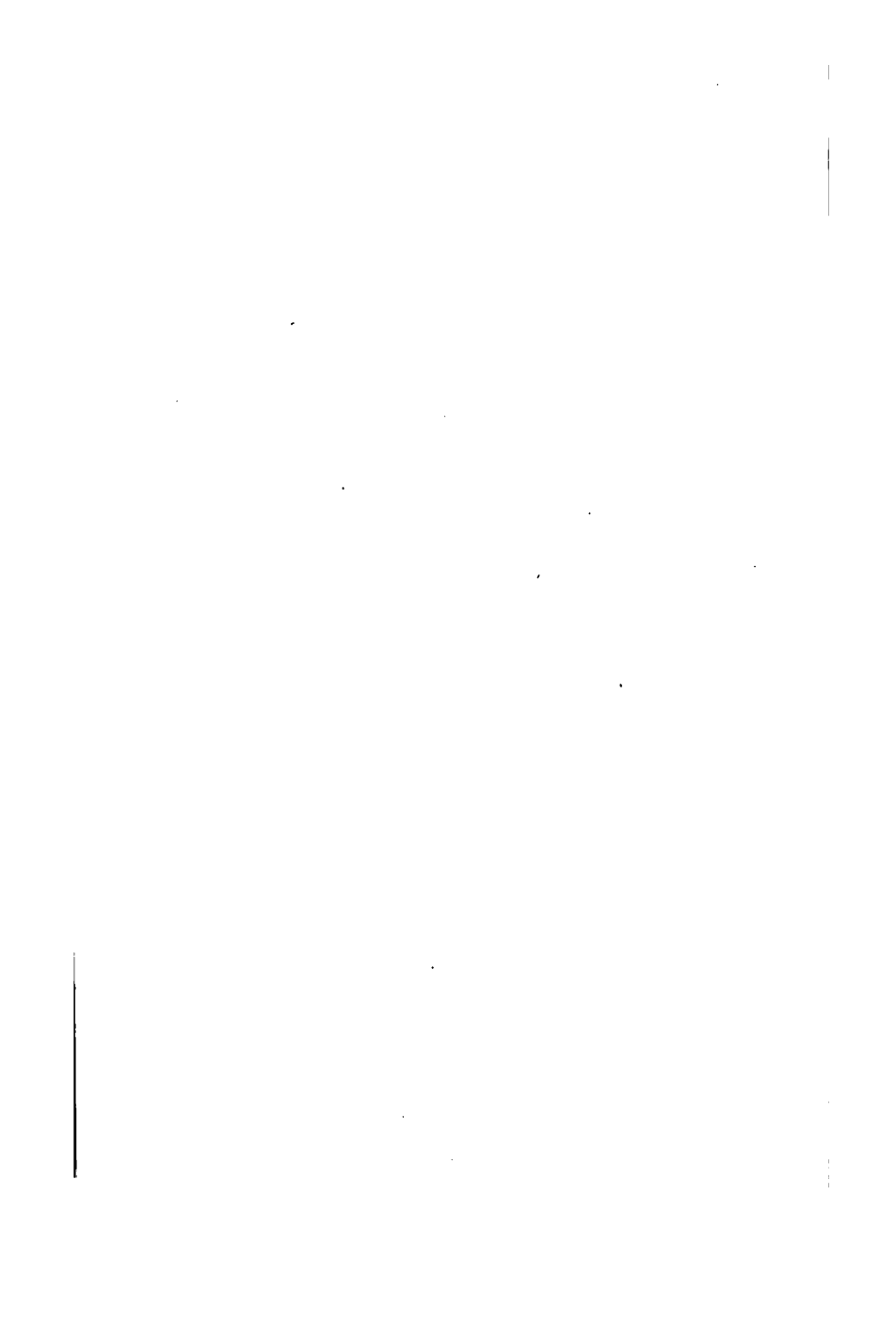
The public sector has also become a major employer of people from the lower education levels. In 1980, people from the lower education levels made up 15% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 25%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from the lower education levels in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

The public sector has also become a major employer of people from the lower health status. In 1980, people from the lower health status made up 10% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 20%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from the lower health status in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.

The public sector has also become a major employer of people from the lower life expectancy. In 1980, people from the lower life expectancy made up 5% of the public sector workforce, and by 1995, this figure had risen to 10%. This increase has been driven by a number of factors, including the growth of the public sector, the increasing participation of people from the lower life expectancy in the workforce, and the increasing demand for public services.



**AIDS TO THE CHEMISTRY AND TESTS OF THE
PHARMACOPŒIA.**



AIDS
TO THE
CHEMISTRY AND TESTS
OF THE
PHARMACOPŒIA.

BY
JAMES DAVISON, L.R.C.S.I. L.K. & Q.C.P.I.
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"Non ignara mali misericordia occurrere disco."—*Æneid.*



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P R E F A C E.

AN Aid Book to Pharmaceutical Chemistry not having as yet been issued, I venture to publish these notes in hope that they may fill the want. I trust that they may prove useful to at least two classes of students.—First to those who, having worked up the subject previously from a larger treatise, may wish hurriedly to burnish their armour ere they try conclusions with the examiner. Again, to those who, with Professor Huxley, look upon *Materia Medica* as books *de omnibus rebus*, and therefore feel obliged to take at least a part of them in as minimised a form as possible. Sympathising with both classes, I have here endeavoured to put the Chemistry and Tests of the Pharmacopœia in the shortest and most concise manner compatible with rendering them intelligible.

So long as medical students are compelled to study nine or ten subjects in two years and a half, and *Materia Medica* is made to consist of chemistry, botany, zoology, and therapeutics, so long will aid books be a necessity—so long in some of these,

might I say in all, must we continue to merit the saying of the poet—

“A little learning is a dangerous thing.”

To those who condemn small books this is my apology.

These notes being intended for medical and pharmaceutical students, the nomenclature of the Pharmacopœia is used in preference to the more correct terms adopted in ordinary manuals of chemistry.

To the student who wishes to understand chemical equations, let him thoroughly comprehend *Quantivalence*, and learn off the names of the substances and their symbols occurring under this head. This will do more than anything else that I know of to facilitate his acquisition of a knowledge of chemistry.

These notes being mainly taken from Attfield, Wilson, and Roscoe's works on the subject, therefore contain nothing new, except in so far as condensation and arrangement are concerned. The student who wishes to pursue the subject at greater length, will find it in abundance in any of these books mentioned.

45 Lundy's-terrace, Dublin,
June, 1880.

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ERRATA.

Page 24, line 10—for mercurous *read* mercuric.

" 24, " 10—for mercuric *read* mercurous.

" 31, " 19—for KCHO_3 *read* NaHCO_3 .

" 32, " 15—for $\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 2\text{Zn}$ *read* $\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 2\text{ZnH}_2\text{O}_2$.

" 32, " 24—for $\text{Zn}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

read $\text{Zn}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

" 32, " 27—for $3\text{ZnC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$ *read* $3\text{Zn}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.



AIDS TO THE CHEMISTRY AND TESTS OF THE PHARMACOPŒIA.

CHEMICAL DEFINITIONS.

An Element is a substance which cannot be resolved into any simpler form of matter, at least by any known means. There are about sixty-three elements; of these, thirty-nine are used in medicine and pharmacy.

An Atom is the smallest particle to which an element can be reduced; or is the smallest particle of an element which can exist in combination with another element.

Atomic Weight is the relative weights of the atoms of the various elements, compared with the weight of an atom of hydrogen, which, being the lightest body known is taken as the standard. Thus, when it is said that the atomic weight of oxygen is 16, that means that its atom is sixteen times heavier than an atom of hydrogen; the atomic weight of nitrogen is 14, meaning that its atom is fourteen times heavier than one of hydrogen. The atomic weight of a compound is the sum of the atomic weights of the

elements composing it. Thus the atomic weight of water is 18, being made up of 2 atoms of hydrogen, each = 1, and one atom of oxygen = 16; $16 + 2 = 18$.

A Molecule is the smallest particle of an element which can exist in a free state. An atom, as such, cannot exist alone, but unites with another atom; this constitutes a molecule, and molecules joined together form bodies. Thus $H + H = H_2$; this constituting a molecule of hydrogen.

A Chemical Compound is a substance composed of two or more elements held together by chemical affinity.

Chemical Affinity, or chemical force, are names applied to the power which holds together the elements in a molecule.

A Mechanical Mixture of substances is one in which each ingredient retains its properties.

A Chemical Symbol is a capital letter, as K, or a capital and one small letter, as Li. It has four functions, viz. :—

- (1) It is short-hand for the name of the element.
- (2) It represents one atom of the element.
- (3) It stands for the atomic weight of the element.
- (4) Symbols represent single and equal volumes of gaseous elements.

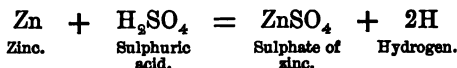
Thus the letter O stands for oxygen; it represents one atom of it, it stands for its atomic weight 16, and it represents a single volume.

A Chemical Formula represents a molecule either of an element or a compound. It also has four functions, viz :—

- (1) It indicates the names of the elements in the molecule.
- (2) It shows the number of atoms in the molecule.
- (3) It represents the molecular weight of the compound.
- (4) In bodies capable of being volatilised it represents two volumes of the substance in the state of vapour.

Thus H_2SO_4 indicates the names of the elements in sulphuric acid; it shows the number of atoms in its molecule, it represents its molecular weight, and stands for two volumes of it in the gaseous state.

A Chemical Equation is a collection of symbols and formula so placed on paper as to represent the condition of things previous to and after chemical change has taken place. Thus,



constitutes a chemical equation; the symbols on the left hand side of the sign of equality picture the state of things previous to the occurrence of chemical action; those on the right give the condition after reaction.

A Solid is a substance the molecules of which are

more or less immobile, though probably not in absolute contact.

A Liquid is a substance the molecules of which so freely move about each other, that it readily assumes and retains the form of any vessel in which it is placed.

A Gas is a substance in which the molecules are so separated that they seem to have lost all attraction to one another, and to have acquired such a property of repulsion, that the only obstacle to their still further separation is the pressure of the surrounding matter.

An Amalgam is the term applied to the combination of mercury with one or more other metals.

An Alloy is a combination of metals into which mercury does not enter.

LAWS OF CHEMICAL COMBINATION.

1st. The law of **Constant Proportion**.—The same substance always contains the same elements united in the same proportions. Example: Sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4 , always contains two atoms of hydrogen, one atom of sulphur, and four atoms of oxygen.

2nd. The law of **Multiple Proportion**.—When two elements unite in more than one proportion they do so in some simple multiple of that proportion. Example: Nitrogen with oxygen forms five com-

pounds, the amount of oxygen in each increasing by a simple multiple of its amount in the first compound, thus :—

Nitrous Oxide, N_2O ,	in the proportion of 28 to 16.	
Nitric Oxide, N_2O_3 ,	do.	28 ,, 32.
Nitrous Anhydride, N_2O_3 ,	do.	28 ,, 48.
Nitric Peroxide, N_2O_4 ,	do.	28 ,, 64.
Nitric Anhydride, N_2O_5 ,	do.	28 ,, 80.

3rd. The law of **Reciprocal Proportion**.—The proportions in which two elements unite with a third are the proportions in which they unite with each other.

QUANTIVALENCE

Atomicity or Quantivalence means the power possessed by an element of entering into combination with hydrogen or displacing it from its compounds. If an atom of an element displaces or combines with one atom of hydrogen, it is termed a **monad**; if it combines with or displaces two atoms of hydrogen, it is termed a **dyad**; if it combines with or displaces three atoms of hydrogen, it is termed a **triad**. In the same manner we have **tetrads**, **pentads**, and **hexads**. Quantivalence may be graphically portrayed by representing the atoms as having arms; and these, unable to remain unoccupied, attach themselves to the arms of the atoms of some other element, or to those of

their own. In the diagram below the arms are represented by lines drawn from the symbols.

 Ag	 O	 Sb—	 —C—	 —N—
Silver.	Oxygen.	Antimony.	Carbon.	Nitrogen.
Monad.	Dyad.	Triad.	Tetrad.	Pentad.
One arm.	Two arms.	Three arms.	Four arms.	Five arms.

Thus a substance having one arm is called a monad; if two, a dyad; and so on. All elements, with exception of hydrogen, may exhibit different degrees of quantivalence. From this fact arise two classes of salts, viz. *per* and *proto*, or *ic* and *ous*. Thus, taking for example iron, acting in a dyad capacity, it forms proto or ferrous salts, as protosulphate or ferrous sulphate, FeSO_4 ; acting as a triad, it forms per or ferric salts, as persulphate or ferric sulphate, $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. Mercury likewise forms two classes of salts; as a monad, mercurous, as mercurous chloride, HgCl ; as a dyad, mercuric, as mercuric chloride, HgCl_2 .

Groups of elements likewise possess quantivalence and are termed **Compound Radicals**; of these there are two varieties, viz., **Acidulous Radicals** and **Basic Radicals**. An *acidulous compound radical* is a group of elements capable of combining with hydrogen to form an acid, or with metals to form salts. Thus NO_3 , an acidulous radical, united with hydro-

gen, forms nitric acid; it is also called a monad radical because it unites with but one atom of hydrogen. A *compound basylous radical* is a group of elements capable of displacing the hydrogen from an acid, thus forming a salt. Take, for example, Ammonium, NH_4 : this by displacing the hydrogen from hydrochloric acid, HCl , becomes chloride of ammonium, NH_4Cl . It also is called a monad radical, because it displaces but one atom of hydrogen.

The following is a list of the **Acidulous** and **Basylous Radicals** of the Pharmacopœia, with their quantivalence.

ACIDULOUS RADICALS.

Monads.

Acetates, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.

Bromides, Br.

Chlorides, Cl.

Iodides, I.

Cyanides, CN.

Hydrates, HO.

Nitrates, NO_3 .

Chlorates, ClO_3 .

Dyads.

Oxides, O.

Sulphides, S.

Sulphites, SO_3 .

Sulphates, SO_4 .

Carbonates, CO_3 .

Oxalates, C_2O_4 .

Tartrates, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$.

Triads.

Citrates, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$.

Phosphates, PO_4 .

Borates, BO_3 .

Arseniates, AsO_4 .

Tetrad.

Ferrocyanides, FeCy_6 .

Hexad.

Ferridcyanides, Fe_2Cy_6 .

BASYLOUS RADICALS.**Monads.**

Hydrogen, H.

Lithium, Li.

Sodium, Na.

Silver, Ag.

Potassium, K.

Ammonium, NH_4 .**Dyads.**

Zinc, Zn.

Oxygen, O.

Cadmium, Cd.

Lead, Pb.

Magnesium, Mg.

Barium, Ba.

Calcium, Ca.

Copper, Cu.

Mercury, Hg.

Cerium, Ce.

Triads.

Gold, Au.

Bismuth, Bi.

Antimony, Sb.

Tetrads.

Iron, Fe.

Aluminium, Al.

Platinum, Pt.

Hexad.

Chromium, Cr.

ACIDS, BASES, SALTS, AND ANHYDRIDES.

An **Acid** is a hydrogen salt, the hydrogen being replaceable by a base. Acids are called monatomic if they contain one atom of hydrogen—as nitric acid, HNO_3 ; diatomic, if they contain two atoms of hydrogen—as sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4 ; triatomic, if they contain three atoms of hydrogen—as citric acid, $\text{H}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$. The acids of the Pharmacopœia are divided into two classes, viz., **Mineral and Vegetable**, according as they are derived from these kingdoms in nature.

A Base is an element capable of displacing the hydrogen from an acid, or combining with an acidulous radical to form a salt. All the elements, as silver, etc., may thus be termed bases.

A Salt is a compound formed either by the displacement of the hydrogen from an acid by a base, or by the direct union of a base with an acidulous radical. There are two classes of salts, viz., **Acid** or **Bisalts**, and **Normal** or **Neutral**, an *acid or bisalt* is one in which only a part of the hydrogen of the acid has been displaced by a base. Thus bicarbonate, or acid carbonate of potash, KHCO_3 , may be considered as true carbonic acid, H_2CO_3 , one atom of whose H has been replaced by one atom of K. A *normal or neutral salt* is one in which the whole of the hydrogen has been replaced by a base; thus carbonate or neutral carbonate of potash, K_2CO_3 , may be considered as carbonic acid, H_2CO_3 , the entire of whose H has been replaced by K.

Anhydrides are groups of elements capable of existing in a free state; of uniting with water to form acids; or with oxides of bases to form salts. The following are the principal anhydrides. It should be noticed that some of these, as CO_2 , are often incorrectly termed acids.

Carbonic Anhydride, CO_2 .

Nitric ,, N_2O_5 .

Nitrous ,, N_2O_3 .

Arsenious Anhydride, As_2O_3 .

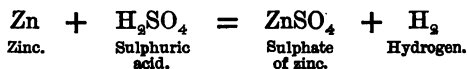
Sulphuric ,, SO_3 .

Sulphurous ,, SO_2 .

Phosphoric ,, P_2O_5 .

I will now ask the student (who has carefully read over these definitions, and committed to memory the lists of quantivalence) to write down the formula for nitrate of silver—remembering that the symbol for silver is Ag, that it is a monad base, that NO_3 is the symbol for the monad acidulous radical of an nitrate, and that single atoms of monads unite to form compounds. The answer cannot be for a moment doubtful. The formula for nitrate of silver must be AgNO_3 . What is the formula for sulphate of potash?—K being the symbol for the monad potassium, SO_4 being the symbol for the dyad acidulous radical of a sulphate, and a dyad entering into combination with two atoms of monad. The formula for sulphate of potash must be K_2SO_4 . A little chemical gymnastics of this kind daily, will do more than anything else that I know of, to facilitate the students acquiring a sound knowledge of the composition of the salts of the Pharmacopœia.

An Equation is to be read thus—taking for example the reaction which occurs in making hydrogen gas.



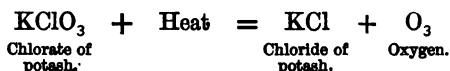
Zinc and sulphuric acid yield sulphate of zinc and hydrogen gas.

If the name of an acid ends in *ic*, its salts will end in *ate*—as sulphuric acid, sulphate; if the acid ends in *ous*, its salts will end in *ite*—as sulphurous acid, sulphite.

GASES.

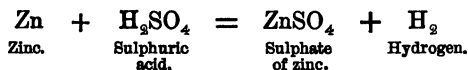
Oxygen, O.

Made by heating chlorate of potash.



Hydrogen, H.

Made by acting on zinc with sulphuric acid



Nitrogen, N.

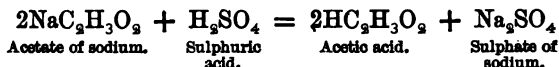
Made by burning phosphorus in a bell-jar filled with air, the mouth of which is placed in a vessel full of water. The phosphorus here unites with the oxygen of the air, forming phosphorus pentoxide, and leaving its nitrogen free.

ACIDS.

Acetic Acid, $\text{HC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.

Is made by the destructive distillation of wood,

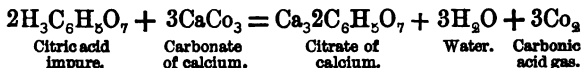
and treating the distillate with carbonate of soda and sulphuric acid, thus:



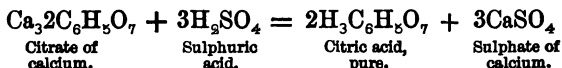
Citric Acid, $\text{H}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$.

Made by acting on lemon juice with prepared chalk and sulphuric acid, thus:

First stage:

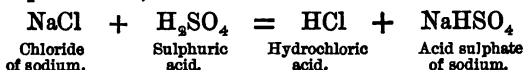


Second stage:



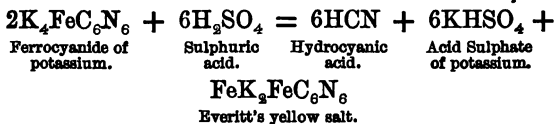
Hydrochloric Acid, HCl .

Made by acting on chloride of sodium with sulphuric acid, thus:



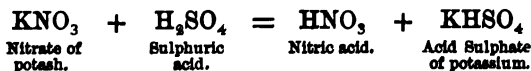
Hydrocyanic Acid, HCN .

Made by heating ferrocyanide of potassium with sulphuric acid, thus:

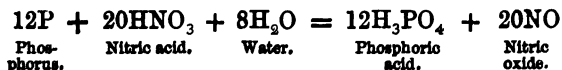


Nitric Acid, HNO_3 .

Made by acting upon nitrate of potash or soda with sulphuric acid.

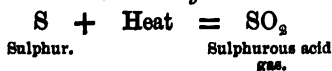
**Phosphoric Acid, H_3PO_4 .**

Made by boiling phosphorus with nitric acid and water.

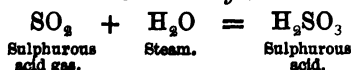
**Sulphuric Acid, H_2SO_4 .**

Made by the combustion of sulphur and oxidation of the resulting sulphurous acid by means of nitrous vapours and steam.

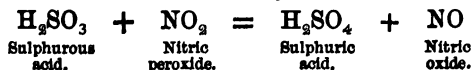
First stage:



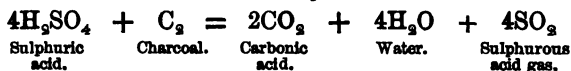
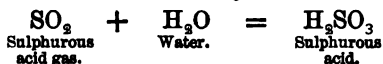
Second stage:



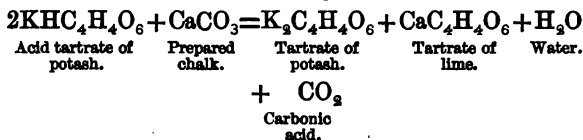
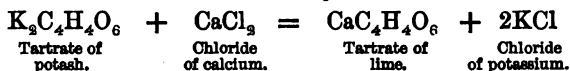
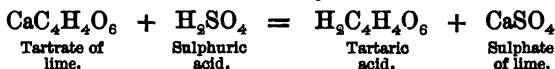
Third stage:

**Sulphurous Acid, H_2SO_3 .**

Made with sulphuric acid, wood charcoal, and water.

First stage:*Second stage:***Tartaric Acid, $\text{H}_2\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$.**

Made by acting on acid tartrate of potash with prepared chalk, chloride of calcium, and sulphuric acid.

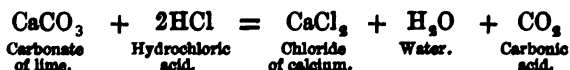
First stage:*Second stage:**Third stage:***Arsenious Acid, As_2O_3 .**

Made by roasting arsenical ores, (arsenio-sulphide of iron) and purified by sublimation. Arsenicum is obtained by heating As_2O_3 in a test tube with dry

charcoal; the carbon here unites with the oxygen of the arsenious acid, the metal being deposited on the sides of the tube.

Carbonic Acid, CO_2 .

Made by acting on carbonate of lime with hydrochloric acid.

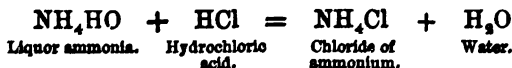


SALTS.

AMMONIUM, NH_4 .

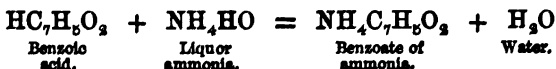
Chloride of Ammonium, NH_4Cl .

Made by neutralising liquor ammonia with hydrochloric acid.



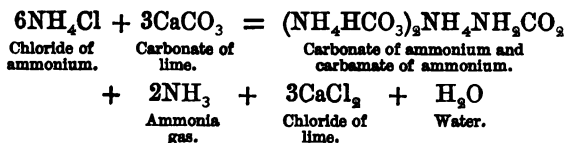
Benzoate of Ammonia, $\text{NH}_4\text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{O}_2$.

Made by dissolving benzoic acid in strong liquor ammonia.



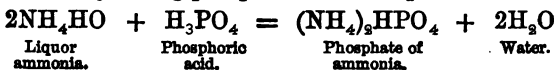
Carbonate of Ammonia, $(\text{NH}_4\text{HCO}_3)_2\text{NH}_4\text{NH}_2\text{CO}_2$.

Made by subliming together chloride of ammonium and carbonate of lime.



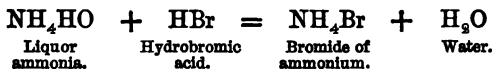
Phosphate of Ammonia, $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$.

Made by adding phosphoric acid to liquor ammonia.



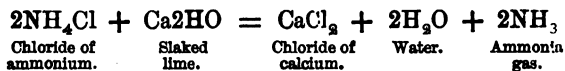
Bromide of Ammonium, NH_4Br .

Made by adding hydrobromic acid to liquor ammonia.



Liquor Ammonia Fortior.

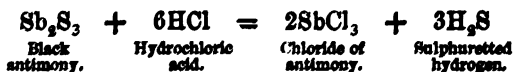
Made by heating together chloride of ammonium and slaked lime. NH_3 is thus produced, which when dissolved in water forms strong solution of ammonia.



ANTIMONY, Sb.

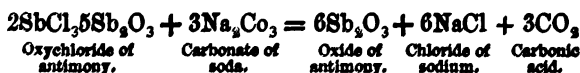
Liquor Antimonii Chloridi, SbCl_3 .

Made by acting on black antimony with hydrochloric acid.



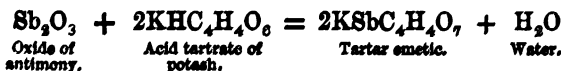
Oxide of Antimony, Sb_2O_3 .

Made by acting on a solution of chloride of antimony with carbonate of soda.



Tartarated Antimony, $\text{KSbC}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_7$.

Made by mixing together oxide of antimony and acid tartrate of potash, then boiling.



SILVER, Ag.

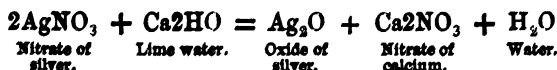
Nitrate of Silver, AgNO_3 .

Made by acting on purified silver with nitric acid.



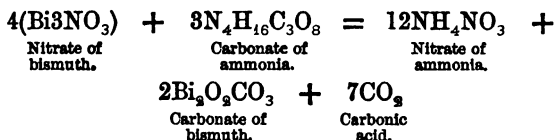
Oxide of Silver, Ag_2O .

Made by adding a solution of lime water to nitrate of silver.

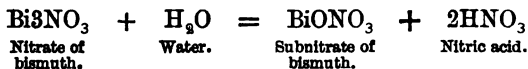


BISMUTH, Bi.**Carbonate of Bismuth, $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3\text{CO}_3$.**

Made by acting on nitrate of bismuth with carbonate of ammonia.

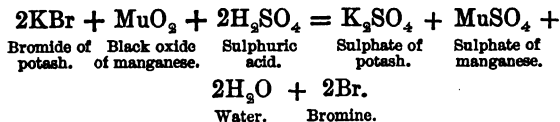
**Subnitrate of Bismuth, $\text{BiONO}_3\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

Made by pouring a solution of nitrate of bismuth into water.

**BROMINE, Br.**

Made by passing chlorine gas into sea water. This sets free the bromine, which is then taken up by shaking with ether. Subsequent purification is required, brought about by converting the bromine into bromide of potassium, and treating this with black oxide of manganese and sulphuric acid.

The following reaction represents the changes which occur during the last stage of the process.

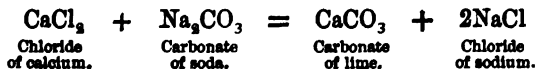


CALCIUM, Ca.**Chloride of Calcium, CaCl_2 .**

Made by acting on carbonate of lime with hydrochloric acid.

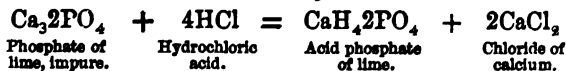
**Precipitated Carbonate of Lime, CaCO_3 .**

Made by mixing together a solution of chloride of calcium and carbonate of soda.

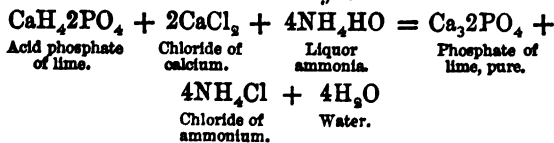
**Slaked Lime, Ca_2HO .****Phosphate of Lime, $\text{Ca}_3\text{2PO}_4$.**

Made by acting on bone ash with hydrochloric acid and solution of ammonia.

First stage:

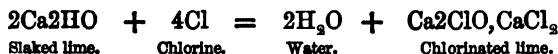


Second stage:



Chlorinated Lime, Ca_2ClO , CaCl_2

Made by passing chlorine gas over slaked lime.

**COPPER, Cu.****Sulphate of Copper, $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

Made by acting on copper with sulphuric acid.

**Chlorine, Cl.**

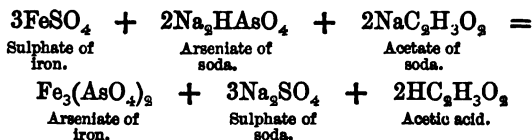
Made by acting on black oxide of manganese with hydrochloric acid.

**IRON, Fe.**

(*Ferrous Salts.*)

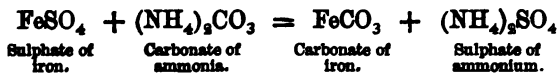
Arseniate of Iron, $\text{Fe}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2$.

Made by acting on sulphate of iron with arseniate and acetate of soda. Acetate of soda is here used to prevent the presence of free sulphuric acid.

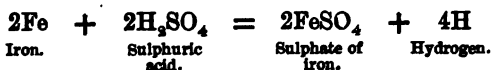


Carbonate of Iron, FeCO_3 .

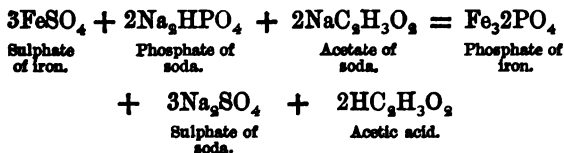
Made by acting on sulphate of iron with carbonate of ammonia.

**Sulphate of Iron, FeSO_4 .**

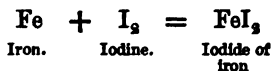
Made by acting on iron wire with sulphuric acid.

**Phosphate of Iron, $\text{Fe}_3\text{2PO}_4$.**

Made by acting on sulphate of iron with phosphate and acetate of soda. Acetate of soda is here used to prevent the presence of free sulphuric acid.

**Iodide of Iron, FeI_2 .**

Made by boiling iron wire with iodine and water.

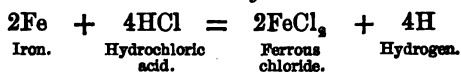


FERRIC SALTS.

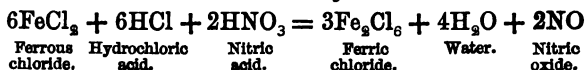
Liquor Ferri Perchloridi Fort.

Made by acting on iron wire with hydrochloric and nitric acid.

First stage :



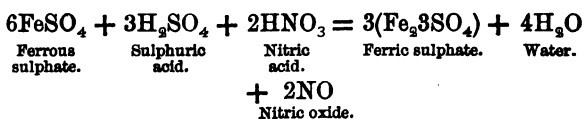
Second stage :

**Liquor Ferri Pernitratis.**

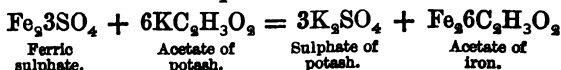
Made by acting on iron wire with nitric acid.

**Liquor Ferri Persulphatis.**

Made by acting on ferrous sulphate with sulphuric and nitric acid.

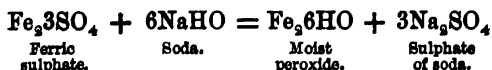
**Acetate of Iron, $\text{Fe}_26\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.**

Made by acting on a solution of persulphate of iron with acetate of potash.

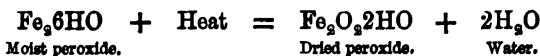


Moist Peroxide of Iron, $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

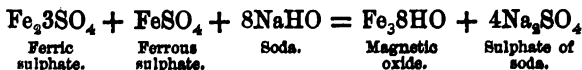
Made by acting on a solution of the persulphate of iron with a solution of soda.

**Dried Peroxide of Iron, $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3\cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

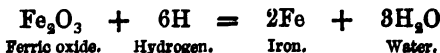
Made by drying the moist peroxide of iron.

**Magnetic Oxide of Iron, Fe_3O_4 .**

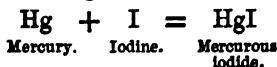
Made by acting on sulphate of iron with the solution of the persulphate of iron and solution of soda.

**Reduced Iron, Fe.**

Made by passing hydrogen gas over hydrated peroxide of iron.

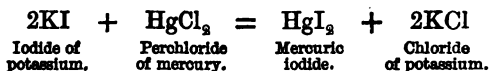
**MERCURY, Hg.****Green or Mercurous Iodide, HgI_2 .**

Made by triturating iodine with mercury.



Red or Mercuric Iodide, HgI_2 .

Made by mixing together solutions of perchloride of mercury and iodide of potassium.

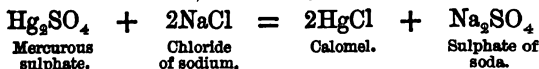
**Calomel or Mercurous Chloride, HgCl .**

Made by acting on mercury and sulphate of mercury with chloride of sodium. The mercury is here used to convert the mercurous sulphate into the mercuric.

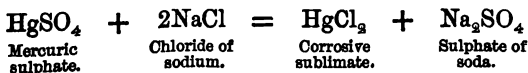
First stage:



Second stage:

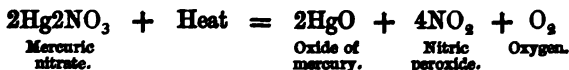
**Corrosive Sublimate, Mercuric Chloride, HgCl_2 .**

Made by acting on sulphate of mercury with chloride of sodium and black oxide of manganese. The use of the latter is to convert any calomel that may be formed into corrosive sublimate.

**Red Oxide of Mercury, HgO .**

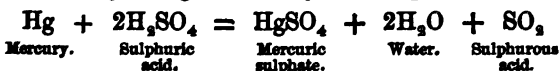
Made by acting on mercury with nitric acid: this

forms nitrate of mercury, which when heated yields the red oxide.



Sulphate of Mercury, HgSO_4 .

Made by acting on mercury with sulphuric acid.



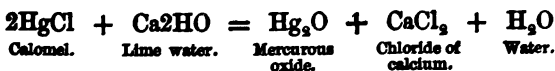
Ammoniated Mercury, NH_2HgCl

Made by acting on perchloride of mercury with solution of ammonia.



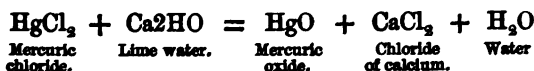
Lotio Nigra, Hg_2O , dissolved in Water.

Made with calomel and lime water.



Lotio Flava, HgO , dissolved in Water.

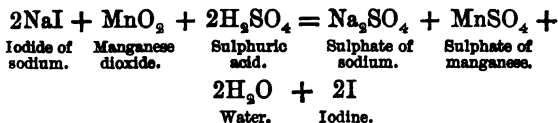
Made with corrosive sublimate and lime water.



IODINE, I.

Made from the ashes of sea-weeds, by treating them with water, black oxide of manganese, and

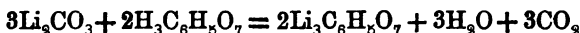
sulphuric acid. Iodine exists in the ashes as iodides of sodium, potassium, and magnesium.



LITHIUM, Li.

Citrate of Lithia, Li₃C₆H₅O₇.

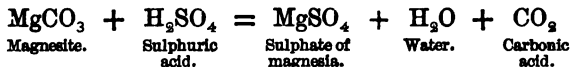
Made by acting on carbonate of lithium with citric acid.



MAGNESIUM, Mg.

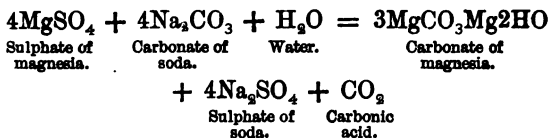
Sulphate of Magnesia, MgSO₄·7H₂O.

Made by treating the native carbonate of magnesium with sulphuric acid.



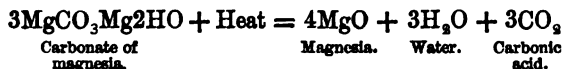
Carbonate of Magnesia, MgCO₃·Mg2HO.

Made by treating sulphate of magnesia with carbonate of soda. There are two kinds of this carbonate, viz., light and heavy. A similar reaction occurs during the manufacture of either kind.



Magnesia, MgO.

Made by heating the light or heavy carbonate of magnesia, according as light or heavy magnesia is required.



**Carbonate of
magnesia.**

Magnesia.

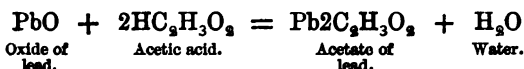
Water.

Carbonic acid.

LEAD, Pb.

Acetate of Lead, $\text{Pb}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{O}_9$.

Made by acting on oxide of lead with acetic acid.



Oxide of lead.

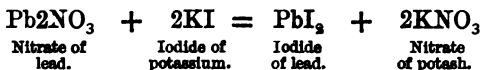
Acetic acid.

Acetate of lead.

Water.

Iodide of Lead, PbI_2 .

Made by acting on nitrate of lead with iodide of potassium.



Nitrate of lead.

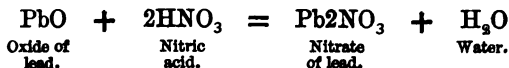
Iodide of potassium.

**Iodide
of lead.**

**Nitrate
of potash.**

Nitrate of Lead, Pb_2NO_3 .

Made by acting on oxide of lead with nitric acid.



Oxide of lead.

Nitric acid.

**Nitrate
of lead.**

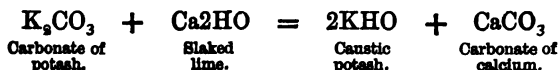
Water.

POTASSIUM, K.

Liquor Potassæ.

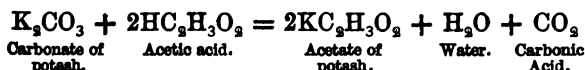
Made by acting on carbonate of potash with

slaked lime ; caustic potash is thus formed, which when dissolved in water forms liquor potassæ.



Acetate of Potash, $\text{KC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.

Made by acting on carbonate of potash with acetic acid.

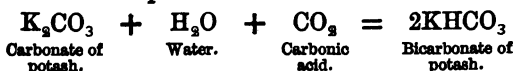


Carbonate of Potash, K_2CO_3 .

Obtained from wood-ashes by treating them with water ; subsequently evaporating.

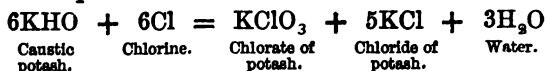
Bicarbonate of Potash, KHCO_3 .

Made by passing carbonic acid gas into a solution of carbonate of potash.



Chlorate of Potash, KClO_3 .

Made by passing chlorine gas into a solution of caustic potash.



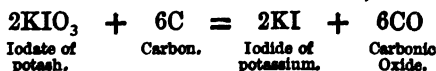
Iodide of Potassium, KI .

Made by treating a solution of potash with iodine.

Iodate of potassium occurs during the process of manufacture; this is converted into the iodide by means of wood charcoal.



The iodate is converted into the iodide, thus :



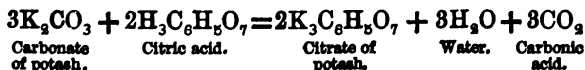
Bromide of Potassium, KBr.

Made by treating a solution of potash with bromine. Wood charcoal is here used to convert the bromate into the bromide; this it does by taking up oxygen same as in case of the iodate.



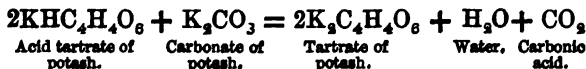
Citrate of Potash, $\text{K}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$.

Made by acting on carbonate of potash with citric acid.



Tartrate of Potash, $\text{K}_2\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$.

Made by neutralising acid tartrate of potash with carbonate of potash.

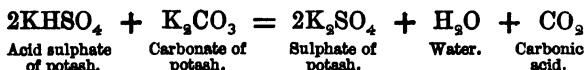


Permanganate of Potash, $K_2Mn_2O_8$.

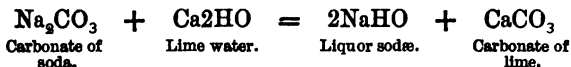
Made by fusing together caustic potash, chlorate of potash, and black oxide of manganese; this forms manganate of potash, which when boiled with water is converted into the permanganate.

**Sulphate of Potash, K_2SO_4 .**

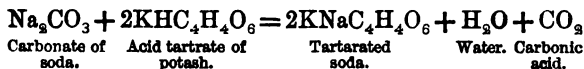
Made by neutralising the acid sulphate of potash left in the preparation of nitric acid with carbonate of potash.

**SODIUM, Na.****Liquor Sodæ.**

Made by acting on carbonate of soda with slaked lime; caustic soda is thus formed, which when dissolved in water forms liquor sodæ.

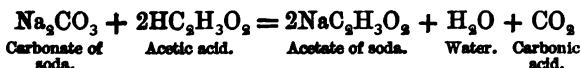
**Tartarated Soda, $KNaC_4H_4O_6$.**

Made by acting on acid tartrate of potash with carbonate of soda.

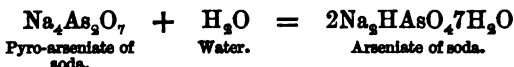


Acetate of Soda, $\text{NaC}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2$.

Made by acting on carbonate of soda with acetic acid.

**Arsenate of Soda, $\text{Na}_2\text{HASO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

Made by heating together arsenious acid, nitrate of, and dried carbonate of soda; pyro-arsenate of soda is thus formed, which when heated with water yields arsenate of soda.

**Carbonate of Soda, Na_2CO_3 .**

Obtained from the ashes of marine plants or by the chemical decomposition of chloride of sodium with sulphuric acid and carbonate of lime.

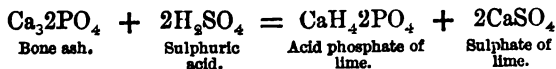
Bicarbonate of Soda, KCHO_3 .

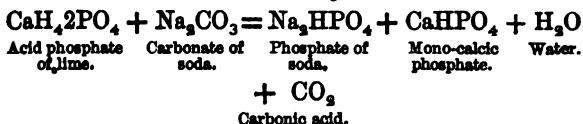
Made by passing carbonic acid into a solution of carbonate of soda.

**Phosphate of Soda, $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

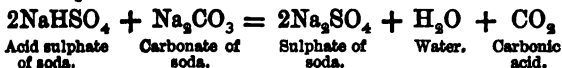
Made by acting on bone-ash with sulphuric acid and carbonate of soda.

First stage:

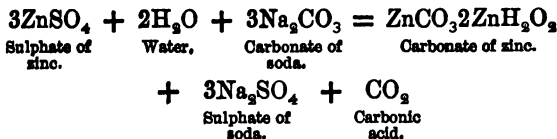


Second stage :**Sulphate of Soda, $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

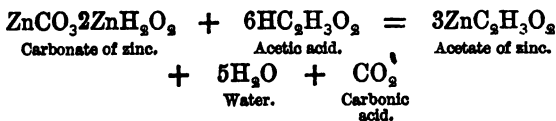
Made by neutralising the acid sulphate of sodium left in the preparation of hydrochloric acid with carbonate of soda.

**ZINC, Zn.****Carbonate of Zinc, $\text{ZnCO}_3 \cdot 2\text{Zn}$.**

Made by acting on sulphate of zinc with carbonate of soda.

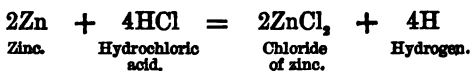
**Acetate of Zinc, $\text{Zn}2\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

Made by acting on carbonate of zinc with acetic acid.

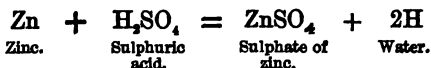


Chloride of Zinc, ZnCl_2 .

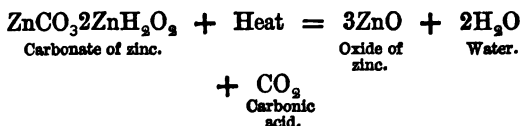
Made by acting on granulated zinc with hydrochloric acid. Solution of chlorine and carbonate of zinc are used in making this salt for the purpose of getting rid of the iron and lead which exist as impurities in the granulated zinc. The chlorine converts the iron and lead into chlorides, the carbonate of zinc changes the iron chloride into ferric hydrate, and the lead chloride into the peroxide, itself becoming chloride of zinc.

**Sulphate of Zinc, $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$.**

Made by acting on granulated zinc with sulphuric acid. Solution of chlorine and carbonate of zinc are used for the same purpose as in the making of the chloride. This is the general way of making hydrogen gas.

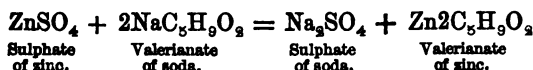
**Oxide of Zinc, ZnO .**

Made by heating the carbonate of zinc.



Valerianate of Zinc, $\text{Zn2C}_5\text{H}_9\text{O}_2$.

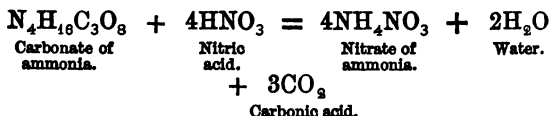
Made by acting on sulphate of zinc with valerianate of soda.



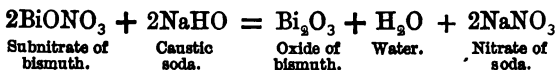
CHEMISTRY OF ADDITIONS TO THE PHARMACOPŒIA OF 1867.

Nitrate of Ammonia, NH_4NO_3 .

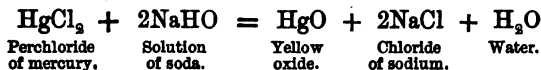
Made by acting on carbonate of ammonia with nitric acid.

**Oxide of Bismuth, Bi_2O_3 .**

Made by boiling a solution of subnitrate of bismuth with a solution of soda.

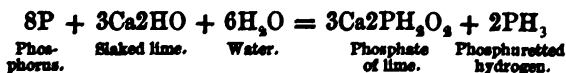
**Yellow Oxide of Mercury, HgO .**

Made by adding a solution of soda to perchloride of mercury.



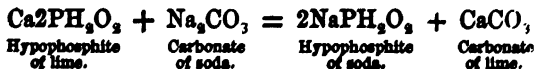
Hypophosphite of Lime, $\text{Ca}_2\text{PH}_2\text{O}_3$.

Made by heating phosphorus with slaked lime.



Hypophosphite of Soda, NaPH_2O_3 .

Made by adding carbonate of sodium to a solution of hypophosphite of lime.



TEST SOLUTIONS OF PHARMACOPŒIA AND THEIR USES.

Solution of Acetate of Copper.

Used for detecting the presence of butyric acid in valerianate of zinc.

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Used to distinguish between citric and tartaric acid. With tartaric acid it gives a precipitate of acid tartrate of potash; with citric acid, it gives none.

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Used in testing phosphate of lime.

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Used for testing phosphoric acid.

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Used to test the presence of turmeric in rhubarb.

Solution of Bromine.

Used to test the presence of iodide of potassium in the bromide.

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Used in testing the carbonate and oxide of zinc.

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Used as a means of recognizing citric acid in citrate of potash.

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Used as a test for atropia.

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Used to precipitate mercury from its compounds.

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Used to distinguish between tannic and gallic acids; giving a precipitate with the former; none with the latter.

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Used for ascertaining the freedom of acetic and glacial acetic acids from sulphurous acid.

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Used for detecting the presence of lime in solution.

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Used as a test for potash salts.

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Used as a test for magnesium salts.

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Used as a test for ferrous salts.

Solution of Sulphate of Indigo.

Used to detect the presence of free chlorine.

Solution of Sulphate of Iron.

Used as a test for nitric acid and nitrates.

Solution of Sulphate of Lime.

Used as a test for oxalic acid or soluble oxalate.

Solution of Sulphide of Ammonium.

Used as a precipitant for the iron group of metals and as a test for zinc.

Sulphuretted Hydrogen Gas.

Used as a precipitant for the copper group of metals.

Solution of Tartaric Acid.

Used to ascertain the presence of potash.

Solution of Yellow Prussiate of Potash.

Used as a test for ferric salts; also for copper and some other metals.

TEST SOLUTIONS FOR VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS.

Volumetric analysis is that form of quantitative analysis by which the amount of a substance present is determined by adding to it a known volume of a certain standard solution.

Volumetric Solution of Soda.

This solution is used for the purpose of determining the strengths of all the acids of the Pharmacopœia, except the following: arsenious, sulphurous, phosphoric, tannic, gallic, benzoic, hydrocyanic, and carbolic.

Volumetric Solution of Oxalic Acid.

This is used for testing the strengths of the following substances: ammonia carb., borax, liquor ammoniæ, liquor calcis, liquor plumbi sub-acetatis, liquor

potassæ, liquor sodæ, plumbi acetæ, also salts of potash and soda.

Volumetric Solution of Bichromate of Potash.

This is used for the purpose of determining the amount of proto-salt of iron present in the following preparations: ferri arsenias, ferri carbonas saccharata, ferri phosphas, and ferri oxidum magneticum.

Volumetric Solution of Hyposulphite of Soda.

This is employed in testing the following substances: iodine, calx chlorata, liquor calcis chloratæ, liquor chlori, liquor sodæ chloratæ.

Volumetric Solution of Iodine.

This is used in the quantitative estimation of sulphurous acid, arsenious acid, and sulphuretted hydrogen.

Volumetric Solution of Nitrate of Silver.

This is used in the quantitative estimation of prussic acid, bromide of potash, and arseniate of soda.



SIMPLE ANALYSIS OR TESTING.

For purposes of analysis, the principal metallic bases are divided into five groups, viz :—Silver group, Copper group, Iron group, Barium group, and Potassium group.

Silver Group.

Silver, Mercury (as a mercurous salt), and **Lead**, all of which are precipitated as insoluble chlorides by hydrochloric acid.

Copper Group.

Copper, Mercury (as a mercuric salt), **Bismuth, Arsenic, and Antimony**—all of which are precipitated as sulphides by sulphuretted hydrogen.

Iron Group.

Iron, Zinc, Aluminium, Manganese, and Chromium, all of which are precipitated by sulphide of ammonium as sulphides.

Barium Group.

Barium and Calcium. These are precipitated by carbonate of ammonium as carbonates.

Potassium Group.

Potassium, Magnesium, Sodium, and Ammonium. There is no common precipitant for this group; their presence is therefore determined by means of separate tests.

TESTS FOR THE METALS.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
SILVER.	Hydrochloric Acid gives a white precipitate of chloride of silver, freely soluble in liquor ammonia. This serves to distinguish the chloride of silver from the cyanide, the latter being soluble with difficulty in liquor ammonia.
AMMONIUM.	Heated with Liquor Potassæ or Liquor Sodæ , it evolves ammonia gas, which is recognised by its smell.
ALUMEN.	With Liquor Potassæ , or Liquor Sodæ , gives a white precipitate, soluble in excess of the mixture, evolving ammonia, especially when heated.
ANTIMONY.	With Sulphuretted Hydrogen , gives a yellow precipitate of sulphide of antimony, soluble in boiling concentrated hydrochloric

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
ANTIMONY. (continued)	acid; this serves to distinguish it from arsenic, which also gives a yellow precipitate with sulphuretted hydrogen, but insoluble in hydrochloric acid. <i>See</i> Marsh's Test.
ARSENIC.	Thrown on a hot coal it evolves an alliaceous odour. Heated in a test tube with a fragment of charcoal, it sublimes and is deposited on the cool part of the tube as a dark mirror-like metallic incrustation. With Ammonio Nitrate of Silver it gives a canary yellow precipitate of arsenite of silver. With Ammonio Sulphate of Copper it gives Scheele's green. <i>See</i> Special Tests, p. 55.
BARIUM.	With Sulphuric Acid it gives a white precipitate of sulphate of barium, insoluble even in boiling nitric acid.
BISMUTH.	With Sulphuretted Hydrogen , gives a black precipitate of sulphide

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
BISMUTH. (continued)	of bismuth, insoluble when liquor ammonia and sulphhydrate of ammonium have been added. This serves to distinguish between it and arsenic and antimony, which likewise give precipitates with sulphuretted hydrogen, but soluble in liquor ammonia and sulphide of ammonium.
CALCIUM.	With Oxalate of Ammonium , gives a white precipitate of oxalate of lime. With Sulphuric Acid it gives sulphate of lime; this being slightly soluble in water is not precipitated. This fact serves to distinguish lime from barium—barium sulphate being precipitated.
COPPER.	With Ferrocyanide of Potassium , gives a maroon red precipitate of ferrocyanide of copper. A piece of bright iron dipped in its solution gets a coating of metallic copper.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
IRON. (Ferrous)	With Ferridcyanide of Potassium , gives Turnbull's blue. With Ferrocyanide of Potassium it gives a precipitate—first of a bluish grey colour, rapidly becoming blue owing to the absorption of oxygen.
IRON. (Ferric)	With Ferrocyanide of Potassium , gives Prussian blue. With Ferridcyanide of Potassium it gives no precipitate, but turns the liquid to a greenish or olive hue, according to its strength. This fact serves to distinguish ferric or persalts from ferrous or protosalts.
MERCURY. (Mercurous)	With Iodide of Potassium , gives the green iodide of mercury. With Lime Water it gives a black precipitate of mercurous oxide (<i>Lotio Nigra</i>).
MERCURY. (Mercuric)	With Iodide of Potassium , gives red iodide of mercury. With Lime Water it gives a yellow precipitate

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
MERCURY. (Mercuric) (continued)	of mercuric oxide (<i>Lotio Flava</i>). Place a piece of bright Copper in a solution of any salt of mercury, mercuric or mercurous, and heat in a test tube, the copper becomes coated with mercury. Pour off the fluid, wash the copper gently and dry it, then heat it to redness in a test tube, when the mercury will sublime and condense in globules on the cool part of the tube.
LITHIUM.	Moisten the end of a platinum wire with a solution of a lithium salt, and hold it in the FLAME of a Bunsen burner or spirit lamp—a beautiful crimson tinge is imparted. The other substances tested by flame are sodium and potassium.
MAGNESIUM.	With a solution of Phosphate of Soda, Chloride of Ammonium, and Liquor Ammonia gives a white crystalline precipitate of ammonio magnesium phosphate.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
LEAD.	With Iodide of Potassium, gives a yellow precipitate of iodide of lead. In order to detect the presence of lead in water, acidulate a pint of it, pass in sulphuretted hydrogen ; if it be present, there will be a brownish discoloration produced owing to the formation of sulphide of lead.
POTASSIUM.	With a few drops of Hydrochloric Acid and Perchloride of Platinum, gives a yellow granular precipitate of double chloride of potassium and platinum. It imparts a violet tinge to flame. Tartaric acid gives with potash the acid tartrate, thus serving to distinguish it from soda.
SODIUM.	Heated on a platinum wire in a non-luminous FLAME, an intensely yellow colour is produced, which is not seen when viewed through blue glass.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
ZINC.	With Ammonium Sulphide , gives a white precipitate of sulphide of zinc. With liquor ammonia it gives a white precipitate of hydrate of zinc, soluble in excess; this serves to distinguish it from aluminum—the hydrate of the latter being insoluble in slight excess of ammonia.
IODINE:	With Starch Paste , gives a blue colour, due to the production, it is said, of iodide of starch. In testing for iodine in the form of an iodide, it is necessary first to liberate it before adding the starch paste. This is done by cautiously adding a little chlorine. In testing bromine for iodine, the bromine must nearly all be converted into hydrobromic acid by a solution of sulphurous acid before the starch paste is added.
BROMINE.	With Starch Paste , gives a yellow colour, due perhaps to the production of bromide of starch. In test-

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
BROMINE. (continued)	ing a bromide, it is necessary to liberate the bromine before adding the starch paste. This is done in the same manner as the liberation of iodine, viz., by the addition of chlorine.
CHLORINE.	Destroys the colour of a dilute solution of SULPHATE OF INDIGO.

TESTS FOR THE ACIDS.

<i>Acids.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
SULPHURIC or SULPHATE.	With Chloride of Barium , gives a white precipitate of sulphate of barium insoluble in boiling nitric acid.
PHOSPHORIC or PHOSPHATE.	With Ammonio-Nitrate of Silver , gives a canary yellow precipitate of ammonio-phosphate of silver. Arsenic gives a similar reaction, but only in perfectly neutral solutions.

<i>Acids.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
OXALIC or OXALATE.	With Chloride of Calcium , gives a white precipitate of oxalate of lime, insoluble in acetic acid, soluble in hydrochloric acid. Lime is the antidote to poisoning by oxalic acid, its oxalate being insoluble in the intestinal fluids.
CARBONIC or CARBONATE.	With Lime Water , gives a white precipitate of carbonate of lime. Carbonates should first be decomposed by hydrochloric acid.
HYDRO- CHLORIC or CHLORIDE.	With Nitrate of Silver , gives a white precipitate of chloride of silver, <i>soluble</i> in liquor ammonia. This serves to distinguish it from prussic acid, which also gives a white precipitate with nitrate of silver, the cyanide of silver thus formed being soluble <i>with difficulty</i> in liquor ammonia.
HYDRO- CYANIC or CYANIDE.	With a solution of the Sulphate and Persulphate of Iron, Caustic Potash and Hydrochloric Acid , gives Prussian blue.

<i>Acids.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
NITRIC. (Strong)	Poured on Copper filings gives orange coloured fumes.
DILUTE or NITRATE.	Add a crystal of Sulphate of Iron , pour in some Sulphuric Acid ; where this meets with the iron crystal a black ring is formed.
TARTARIC or TARTRATE.	With a solution of Acetate of Potash , gives a white precipitate of acid tartrate of potash. If in the form of a tartrate, previously acidulate with acetic acid.
CITRIC or CITRATE.	Boiled with Chloride of Calcium , gives a white precipitate of citrate of lime insoluble in caustic potash; this serves to distinguish it from tartaric acid, which also gives a precipitate with chloride of calcium.
ACETIC or ACETATE.	Heated with strong Sulphuric Acid , gives the odour of vinegar.

TESTS FOR THE ALKALOIDS.

<i>Alkaloids.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
ACONITIA.	When rubbed on the skin it causes a tingling sensation, followed by prolonged numbness. To concentrated Phosphoric Acid it imparts a lasting violet tint. (Fluckiger.)
ATROPIA.	With Perchloride of Gold , gives a citron yellow precipitate; one drop of a dilute aqueous solution powerfully dilates the pupil.
CONIA.	Has a strong odour which has been compared to that of mice. Hemlock leaves or fruit rubbed up with a solution of Caustic Potash gives this characteristic smell.
MORPHIA. (Opium)	With a strong solution of the Perchloride of Iron , gives a dirty blue colour. Meconic acid with perchloride of iron gives a red colour due to the formation of meconate of iron. Sulphocyanide of

*Alkaloids.**Tests.***MORPHIA.****(Opium)***(continued)*

potassium, found in saliva, also gives a red colour with perchloride of iron; corrosive sublimate destroys this coloration, but does not do so in the case of meconic acid. Opium, containing morphia and meconic acid, is recognised by the above tests.

QUININE.

With Chlorine Water and Solution of Ammonia, gives an emerald green colour, due to the production of a substance termed thalleioquin.

STRYCHNIA.

Put a few drops of a solution of strychnia on a white plate; near to it place a small fragment of Bichromate of Potash; to this add a few drops of Sulphuric Acid; when the acid has become fairly tinged, draw it towards the strychnia by means of a glass rod; on contact, a play of colour takes place, commencing with purple, quickly fading into a yellowish red.

<i>Alkaloids.</i>	<i>Tests.</i>
STRYCHNIA. (continued)	Physiological Test. —Place a small frog in an ounce of water to which $\frac{1}{100}$ of a grain of strychnia has been added; in two or three hours, tetanic spasms and death.
BRUCIA.	With Nitric Acid , gives an intense red colour. This fact enables us to distinguish nux vomica from cusparia bark.

There are three special tests for **Arsenicum**, viz.: Reinsch's, Marsh's, and Fleitmann's.

Reinsch's Test.

Acidulate with hydrochloric acid a solution containing arsenic; in this place a slip of bright copper; on this arsenicum becomes deposited, an equal amount of copper passing into the solution. Pour off the liquid, wash and dry the copper, then heat it in a test tube: the arsenicum sublimes and is deposited (in the form of octahedral crystals) on the cool part of the tube.

Marsh's Test.

In a wide-mouth bottle, fitted with a cork pierced by a funnel, and a delivery tube bent to a right angle, generate hydrogen gas by means of zinc, and dilute sulphuric acid. When the action has been going on for some time, and the whole of the air expelled from the apparatus, ignite the hydrogen at the end of the delivery tube, and hold a piece of porcelain against the flame; if a dark stain be produced upon it the materials must be rejected as impure. Should the ingredients prove pure, add the arsenical solution through the funnel tube, observe that the flame now burns with a livid bluish colour, owing to the presence of arseniuretted hydrogen, AsH_3 . Again hold a piece of porcelain against the flame; on it a brown stain of arsenicum will be deposited. Antimony gives a similar stain, but differing from that due to arsenicum, in the fact that it is not dissolved by a solution of chlorinated lime, whereas the arsenicum stain is dissolved by this solution.

Fleitzmann's Test.

Generate hydrogen gas by heating zinc in a test tube with a solution of caustic potash or soda, drop into this tube a little arsenical solution, and spread over the mouth of it a cap of filter paper moistened with one drop of solution of nitrate of silver. Again

heat the tube; arseniuretted hydrogen is now evolved, and this in passing up through the cap reacts on the nitrate of silver, causing a purplish black spot to be produced.



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